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"Salvation of India lies in Cottages."

—*MAHATMA GANDHI*

THE SWATANTRA PARTY

FOR effective functioning of Parliamentary Democracy, a strong and well-organised opposition party was a long-felt need, which may be fulfilled by 'The Swatantra Party' lately started by the country's elder statesman Shri C. Rajgopalachari.

With growing trend of the ruling Congress party towards Totalitarianism and State-Capitalism and increasing loss of confidence of the people in its capacity to solve pressing economic and administrative problems, it was inevitable that natural forces must produce alternative arrangement in the birth of a new political party to oppose and ultimately to replace a thoroughly corrupt, inefficient, power-ridden ruling party, mismanaging the affairs of the country. And, the first Governor General of Free India, Shri Rajgopalachari, at his advanced age of over 75 has to come out of his retirement to start and to lead the opposition party is a definite pointer to the rot, decadence and demoralisation that has set in the Congress and its rule.

Unlike other parties and heterogeneous political groups formed in the wake of independence to oppose the Congress, the 'Swatantra Party' distinguishes itself in the quality of its leadership and the basic stand that it has taken to oppose the Totalitarian and Pro-Communistic policies of the ruling party, which are endangering the very existence of the infant democracy in this country. The Nagpur Resolution of the Congress, laying down the policy of the Government for Joint Co-operative Farming, Ceilings on Land-holdings and State-trading in Food Grains, has definitely exposed leanings of the Congress towards Totalitarian State and awakened politically thinking sections of people in the country to shake off their complacency and organise to oppose the Communistic tendencies of the party in power. The Nagpur Resolution has provided a challenge to the nation not only to oppose the party in power but also to provide alternative leadership to save freedom from being encroached upon by the Congress Totalitarianism.

The Need of Opposition Party

What prompted the leaders of the new opposition party to form 'Swatantra Party' was reported to have been stated by Prof. N. G. Ranga, the leader of the party, in a press conference in New Delhi:—

"The need for a party like the Swatantra Party had come to be intensely felt after the Nagpur Session of the Congress and the nation-wide campaign that had been launched by the Congress in favour of Co-operative Farming. Personally speaking, he looked upon Co-operative Farming as "one of the greatest challenges to our cultural heritage, that is, to the institution of self-employed people".

No doubt, Nagpur Resolution on Co-operative Farming has created country-wide consternation and raised apprehen-

sions of the people as to where the Congress rule is leading them. But there are deeper and more vital reasons that led to the formation of the Swatantra Party and which were reported to have been stated by the founder of the party itself Shri C. Rajgopalachari in his own inimitable way while addressing a public meeting in Madras :—

"Everyone in India to-day is weighed down by a sense of unhappy uncertainty. This state of things has come into being because of the impulsive talk about future policies, the Government leaders have been making. The Government must stop adding to the uncertainties facing the country.

"*The policy of the Government has made keen the criminal faculties of the people. Good people's ways are being desperately put down. This is a tragedy.* If the opposition could undo this, it will have done something ".

The Socialist-cum-Secularist policies of the Congress, which nobody including the Congress leaders know what they really mean and which are being interpreted to suit the interests of the ruling party in a variety of ways, have created terrible confusion in the socio-economic life of the country and made the people uncertain and unhappy as stated by Rajaji. The time has come when people must organise under 'Swatantra Party' and under the wise leadership of Rajaji and stop the ruling party from adding to these Socialistic innovations, which have brought the country very near the Communistic State and loss of individual freedom which our democracy should ensure.

The greatest charge against the Congress rule is that it has uprooted moral values and undermined national character in its obsession to make the country Socialist and Secularist. All sorts of wrong tendencies and in the words of Rajaji 'criminal faculties' of the people have been encouraged making the life of good people extremely miserable. Such a state of affairs cannot be tolerated and nature must provide alternative change to a hopelessly immoral and bad rule, which is leading the people down-grade in moral and ethical scales.

The starting of 'Swatantra Party' by Rajaji at such a psychological juncture provides a bright ray of hope to the people in the midst of gloom, hopelessness and universal frustration created by the Congress mis-rule of the last 12 years. And, we have every hope that it will find large measure of support and following from all classes of people including the Congressmen who are sick of Shri Nehru's foreign imported socialistic policies.

Advantages to Swatantra Party

As the 'Swatantra Party' is expected to fulfil psychological and historical need of a nation suffering from exploitation and mis-rule of the Congress, it will not have to suffer for want of support and following. It starts with many advantages, which as stated by 'Observer' in the 'Times of India' dated June, 18th provides encouraging start to the party :—

"The party starts with several advantages. Its leadership is skilful in debate and well-equipped intellectually. It is assured of adequate financial help and of support, critical though it may be in places, from a large section of the press. In the urban areas, it can count on the support of the upper middle class, a sizable section of the "Salariat", doctors, lawyers and other professional persons, shop-keepers and so on. In the rural areas, the middle peasants and the landlords will welcome the party, which, if it is progressive enough can also win the allegiance of the rest of the peasantry".

The 'Swatantra Party' owes its origin to the Nagpur Resoluton of the Congress, introducing Joint Co-operative Farming, which is just another name for collectivisation of lands and depriving the peasantry of its age-old heritage of individual

peasant farming, the main sphere of the party's work would be the development of the Indian peasantry in all possible ways, while keeping its freedom and individuality intact. If the party concentrates on this issue more than on any thing else and produces results that it aims at, its success and future are assured.

POVERTY AND PLANNING

By: SURESH RAM

IN April last, some Sarvodaya workers, led by Shri Brahma Dev Bajpai, Vinobaji's representative for U. P. went into the far interior of the Almorah district of our Pradesh. One evening, they reached a village lying near the India-Tibet border. It was a horrible sight. Haggard faces and withered cheeks all round—no lustre in their eyes. They came across several houses where food was not cooked more than thrice a week because of want of cereals.

No doubt there is a Government cheap grain shop in the village. But only a few families can afford to purchase grain daily, majority of them cannot. They have no money to buy. And they are moneyless because there is no work for them. Unemployment has marked them for starving existence.

No work, no money, no food! And this even after twelve years of Swaraj and eight years of Planning.

This picture of the terrible poverty of our province is confirmed by the National Sample Survey reports and allied information. We are told that vast numbers of U. P.'s peasantry live below the poverty-line. The precise state of affairs is illustrated in the following table :—

No.	Percentage of rural households	Annual expenditure per household
1.	45	Below Rs. 600
2.	50	Between Rs. 600 and Rs. 1800
3.	5	Above Rs. 1800

These figures speak for themselves. A little less than half of our peasantry spend less than Rupees fifty per month. It comes to Rupees ten per head, or about five annas per day! Now what can five annas buy? They won't fetch even the required grain, let apart clothing and other necessities.

It is fitting to compare these data of expenditure with those of income. An official publication, *U. P. Through Figures*, contains the following table about total and per capita incomes for three consecutive years :—

Year	Total for U. P.		Urban		Rural	
	Income in crores	Per capita	Income in crores	Per capita	Income in crores	Per capita
1955-56	Rs. 17,65	265.1	6,77	743.8	10,88	189.3
1956-57	17,39	258.4	6,04	656.2	11,35	195.4
1957-58	16,92	248.8	6,14	659.9	10,78	183.6

When the rural per capita income is Rs. 183.6, the average family expenditure must come to more than nine hundred rupees. But no less than half the families spend far less. What a grinding poverty !

It is a fashion to talk of raising the standard of living. True, the standard must be raised. But of what ? Millions in our villages do not 'live'. They simply exist. The problem before them is not how to improve their status but simply how to keep themselves and their families alive. To talk of standard before them is to ridicule their poverty and to condemn them for no fault of their own. Let those interested in 'standard' raise it by all means but they must not deprive these famished masses of their morsel of *roti* and pinch of salt. The pressure of development must not crush those at the bottom.

A little consideration will show that the root cause of this poverty is unequal distribution of land, the basic means of production and inevitable necessity of life. According to an official release, 44 percent of the rural households in U. P. have only one percent of land. And the well-to-do families, hardly two percent, own sixteen percent and doing no mannual work themselves ; they reap the harvest yielded by the labour of others.

The unjust distribution of land is no peculiarity of U. P. It is a common malady which the whole country suffers from. There are more than six and a half crores of rural families in India, having less than 31 crores of acres of land. The break up is as follows :—

No.	Families		Area of land in possession	
	Total	%	Total	%
1.	15 lakhs	2	8.69 crores of acres	28.5
2.	152 ,,	23	17.00 ,,	54.5
3.	489 ,,	75	5.30 ,,	17.0
	656 ,,	100	31.00	100

This is the state of affairs after Zamindari has been abolished in every State of the country, more specially so in U. P. which is loudest in its declaration of having removed all intermediaries between the tiller and the state. There is no dearth of land reform laws here or elsewhere, enacted from time to time. But they leave the core of the problem untouched. Whence poverty and planning are both advancing simultaneously.

Recently the Union Minister for Community Development observed that the official agency was not able to provide help to the needy section or to those in distress. Those who require it the less get the more of it because of their resources and connections. The poorer and more deserving a man, the less he would get it. And those at the lowest rung of the ladder receive nothing at all. For these unsophisticated folk, planning means providing an opportunity to the prosperous and resourceful few to exploit their labour to an increasing extent.

This aggravating poverty of our country is throwing us a challenge. Even democratic laws have failed to halt its march. Law has its own limitations. As they say, it can carry the horse to the pond but cannot force water down its throat. The political parties too are unable to tackle the situation. More interested in power than public good, they are constitutionally helpless to bring about a lasting transformation, particularly so in our country

where creating bitterness and talking ill seem to be their main concern. This task can be accomplished only by the people themselves. And for this they have to muster their self-reliant power. People can do what Governments and parties can't.

The baffling situation offers an open invitation to the youth. It calls upon them to come out of their grooves, rise above party or other differences and combine together as man and man. The curse of unfair distribution of land and its treatment as a marketable commodity must be wiped out. It should be owned not by any individual or the State but by the village and must be uniformly and unanimously distributed by the people amogst themselves. Only then would our villages come into their own and the country be able to stand on its feet.

What a vast country and what an awful poverty! We must forget our differences and unite to fight this growing menace. Our duty to coming generations and to ourselves too demands that we should cease to squander our energy and resources in petty squabbles and selfish conflicts. Let us begin marching together before it is too late.

ON MYRDAL'S PHILOSOPHY OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

By: MAHESH CHAND

THERE is a belief that if one has some special quality he is bound to shine somewhere or be recognised somewhere. On an analogy it can be said that if developed countries have exploited the under-developed countries so far and have yet justified their greater development in the name of some "equality doctrine", "philosophy of natural laws" or "Laissez Faire" and if it is the aspiration of under-developed countries to develop themselves, they can do so if they have some quality-some originality. That quality-that special feature—, when used to the full, will enable them to turn the tide of exploitation.

Western economists and sociologists including Gunnar Myrdal have given a support to circular and cumulative causation. Poverty makes the poor poorer. Nothing succeeds like success. Money begets money. Nothing fails like failure. All these *expressions* imply a circular interaction of forces and a net result of increased intensitv of the effect of these forces. If poverty or opulence, success or failure be taken as the variable under observation, then it means that it is the effect as also a cause of a further effect on itself in the same direction. In the words of Myrdal, normally "a change does not call forth countervailing changes but, instead, supporting changes, which move the system in the same direction as the first change but much further. Because of such circular causation a social process tends to become cumulative and *often* to gather speed at an accelarating rate" (*Italics ours*).

In view of this it is suggested that positive steps must be taken to break the 'vicious circle' and to strike at the predilections of economics, so that the "equality doctrine" may be implemented. The alleged predilections are stable equilibrium, reality models to be explained only in terms of economic factors,

harmony of interests, Laissez Faire, free trade and callousness towards foreigners. But how to strike at these predilections ? How to break the vicious circle ?

Before we attempt to make our constructive contribution let us view another problem raised by Myrdal viz., how does the equality doctrine originate and maintain its strength "through untold centuries of blatant inequality and oppression". Myrdal for once sees this doctrine emerging as a logical conclusion from the philosophy of natural laws and yet he poses the above mentioned problem. That shows that Myrdal is not convinced of the origin of the equality doctrine.

Myrdal has suggested at one place that in a theory the ideal is proved to be a logical inference from premises of facts i. e., facts must be the final justification for a theory. He is thus inductive in his approach. So are we, but we believe in the following predilections :—

1. Continuous change
2. Circular dependence
3. Rebirth
4. Freedom from rebirth.

Continuous change is a daily experience. Circular dependence follows from the experience–also daily–that there is no event which cannot be seen to be a cause of some other event. Rebirth is a conclusion from circular dependence. The doer of a deed who dies must come back to share the results of his deeds. Even if we see the 'mortal' being "specific collection of matter", that collection must take another shape to share the effects of the past deed. But we know that man is not merely a specific collections of matter that there is something else (say Z) in a man whose absence changes 'a living man' into 'a dead man'. Our belief is that that something shares the results of the deeds and has therefore to come back in some form to this world. When deeds end, i. e., when Z is not a party to any deed, Z gets the freedom from rebirth.

We further believe that Z acts through the physical body may be, of a man, animal, bird, insect or plant, and that Z's are equal. As Z's are equal, physical formations equipped with Z are equals. Hence atleast men are equals : each man therefore deserves equal opportunities and equal rights.

Incidentally, because one must be reborn to share the effects of his deeds, bad deeds, which will lead to bad effects, will mean a birth in a bad environment. Hence deeds must be good deeds.

A PLAN TO FEED OUR TEEMING MILLIONS

By : J. K. MISRA

THERE seems to be now almost a unanimity of purpose and consensus of opinion that a target of 110 million tons of food-grains is capable of achievement in the third five-year plan, provided an all-out emergency-drive is undertaken; and that this output of 110 million tons per year by the year 1965–66 would be able safely to dispense with imports. This may assure 18 oz. of food-grains per head per day, besides leaving 10 million tons for exports. With an investment of 1,200 crores of rupees on lands already under plough, devoted mostly to irrigation, fertilizers, seeds, etc., the target production of 110 million tons by the end of the third plan may be capable of achievement through the adoption of the intensification-measures at the village-level for the short period.[1]

But so long as the population continues to grow at its present alarming rate, the problem of feeding it adequately is bound to present a challenge which the most determined effort to achieve self-sufficiency is likely to fail to cope with.[2] The planning for food, despite the postulated targets being achieved, demands greater caution and exertion, and concerted action, viewed over a period of longer perspective, for in the years coming the yawning gap between the rise in population and the commensurate increase in food-output may be fraught with serious difficulties to bridge. The capacity of agricultural production to keep pace with the rising number of mouths has never been in a happy mood of wedlock, more so, with the present rate of progress of technological improvements. As it is very unlikely to evolve some revolutionary techniques of production in forseeable future, and to demonstrate them successfully on large scale over the fields of the farmers within a short compass of time, the ways and means to be explored will have to be seen obviously in the light of the existing improved techniques.

It is, therefore, the call of the hour to tap all other resources simultaneously, besides employing the better techniques of improving the yield per acre, which are limited to a certain extent in their application after having reached a norm of 50 to 100 percent increase in additional output, for the commonly known principle of Diminishing Marginal Returns begins to operate much earlier in the case of agricultural industry than that of its counter-parts—industry and other enterprises—more poignantly so in the countries with under-developed economies, mostly dependent upon backward techniques of production.

No doubt, there may be a lot of scope for theoretical over-night improvements in the techniques of production applicable to agriculture too, but we can ill-afford to shut our eyes from glaring realities, howsoever unpalatable, sweeping our brains that, in practical aspects, the concept of revolutionary improvements and their immediate transcendence on large-scale over the fields of the farmers over a short period of time, say, next one or two five-year plans, is much more akin to a fool's paradise. Naturally, it is for us to have that quest to explore some other ways and methods of raising the total output of foodgrains and commercials,

1. For Further studies, read 'A case for Change in Our Basic Approach towards Agricultural Planning' by J. K. Misra. (May, 1959 issue of 'Rural India', Bombay.

2. For a detailed study refer to the Ford Foundation's Expert Committee Report on Agriculture.

with a view to develop a sustaining economy by fostering a sound agro-industrial base for future planning.

Reclamation of Waste-lands

Though no effort should be spared to raise the yield per acre from the land already under cultivation, yet after having taken all reasonable, rather all possible practicable measures for raising output per acre, putting under plough as much of land, not hitherto cultivated, as possible, the reclamation of Waste-lands must catch our immediate attention.

The latest provisional statistics available for the year 1956-57* indicate that there are 53.6 million acres of culturable waste, and another 58.7 million acres of fallow-lands, which can be successfully utilised for crop-culture. So far as the case of reclamation is concerned, fallow-lands present an easier proposition for their exploitation as compared to the culturable wastes, which may require heavy-duty Mechanical Equipment, besides huge amounts of investment for their early disposal. The Central Tractor Organization is doing some useful work in this line. It has been estimated that the cost of reclamation per acre for C. T. O. operations works at about forty rupees per acre on average, which may be rationalized to further cuts through economy-measures.

At this rate of reclamation-cost per acre, a sum of 5,000 million rupees may just do the needful for the reclamation of the entire area of 112.3 million acres available for reclamation at present. This, even at the moderate average rate of eight maunds per acre of current output, may fetch another forty millions or so of food-grains, i. e.. a 50 percent further increase in the total productive capacity over and above the contemplated target of 75 million tons of food-grains by the end of the second five year plan. This average yield is capable of further improvements, say, raising the yield upto 12 maunds per acre without incurring extra cost because of the virginity of land, providing richer food-contents for the growth of the plants.

But as the entire area reclaimed cannot be simultaneously utilised for the production of food-grains owing to the very delicate nature of farming—rotation of crops being an essentially unavoidable adjunct of agriculture all over—and also because of comparatively less remunerative impact of raising of the food-grains upon the economic conditions of the peasants, only half of this may be relied upon for the production of food-grains, the other half being left out for commercial crops.

This stands for an additional output of some 20 million tons of foodgrains, besides an equivalent of output in terms of commercials—the total output raised varying according to the nature and conditions of the soil, climate, crops, and necessary facilities available. The intensification of cultural practices over these lands may out-turn still higher quantities, say, 50 to 100 percent more than the initial estimates-the intensification-measures to be deferred for future-if possible, to be undertaken in the fourth plan, or as and when the available resources permit.

Thus, the third plan may content for the present with the reclamation of land available for the purpose, and growing it with the crops in the best possible conventional techniques and manners. This may assure us an extra additional minimum of some 30 million tons of annual output by the end of the third-plan-period—taking an over-all picture of the things at 100 percent increase from the present level of production of 70 million

* India 1959.

tons[4] in 1958-59. With an adequate price-support policy to ensure a reasonable return to the cultivators, there may be enough of foodgrains for internal consumption, besides leaving quite considerable exportable surplus to win enough of so badly needed foreign exchange, to be utilised for the speediest transformation of the countryside during the fourth plan, whose solid base is to be fabricated in the third plan for the future prosperity and progress of the nation.

Feasibility of the Ventures

Now averring in the capacity of reclamation of culturable waste and fallows to yield additional agricultural produce, let us explore the ways and means to exploit these so far untapped resources within the frame-work of the third plan. On average, if we can reclaim some 25 million acres of land annually, the vast projects of reclamation may turn out to be a practicable proposition. In the matter of reclamation of land, needing severe, blood-curdling operations, the emphasis and importance on mechanical operations can in no case be underestimated.

Even at the present rate of operational cost[5] of the C. T. O., a provision of a sum of 100 million rupees annually should be well within the means of a big nation of ours. But with the record of the progress of the operations, conducted by the Central Tractor Organization, it is well nigh impossible to attain the objective in view, even within decades of time to come. Obviously, no effort should be spared to bring about this reclamation with the local resources, if the speediest reclamation is possible this way. Finances should in no case be allowed to stand as an unsurpassable hurdle in the way of reclamation, because whatever is spent on these operations is capable of being turned over within a period of six to eight months, for being ploughed back in other ventures. The State can very conveniently find out necessary resources for pushing through such quick-return projects. If nothing else, at least, the resort to Nasik Printing Press may conveniently be had to meet the emergency, without in any substantial measure jeopardising the stability of the rupee, owing to highly favourable capital-output ratio, which may act as the necessary brake against the rising spiral of prices on this score particularly.

Whatever possible must be done to requisition big units of tractors and bull-dozers for the reclamation of the waste-lands. The tougher and more arduous operations over culturable wastes should have a priority in the projects undertaken by the C.T.O. and similar other organizations, possessed of heavy-duty units. The task of reclaiming the fallow lands–a comparatively easier proposition–may be undertaken by the huge army of landless labour, seeking fruitful avenues of employment at present in our rural areas.

As a matter of fact, this state of abysmal unemployment in a way may act as a boon in disguise for the performance of these big tasks lying ahead of us, which otherwise, went unfathered and uncared for so long in the past. No doubt, the cost of reclamation through human, manual labour with local techniques and implements may, in most of the cases, be a costlier process of undertaking than what it would be through that of the mechanized operations. But in view of the fact that during 1957-58, an area of 66,249 acres of Kans-infested lands in Madhya Predesh, Assam and Bihar, was reclaimed, bringing the total area re-

4. Indicates anticipated production for 1958-59. The actual production of foodgrains for 1958-59 is over 73 million tons.

5. Operational cost here denotes the cost of reclamation per acre.

claimed by the Central Tractor Organisation, since 1948, to 16 lakh acres[6] it is obvious that to reclaim another area of well over 100 million acres during the next five years is an act of impossibility for the C. T. O. to undertake. At the pace of achievement of 1.6 million acres of reclamation over a period of a decade, it may take well over 60 decades for the Central Tractor Organization to deliver the goods. The nation cannot afford to hang on till then.

A different approach is needed

In view of the enormity of the problem, and the inability of the Government to reclaim the lands through its organizations within a reasonable period of time, the only speedy remedy lies in tapping the local resources of man-power to deal with this stupendous task on a war-like emergency-basis. This calls for a basic change in our approach.

Out of the 97.337 million acres of uncultivated land in 1953-54, the States of Madhaya Pradesh, Rajasthan and Bombay accounted for 50.963 acres, whereas of 61.049 million acres of fallow-lands, they together represented another 28.408 million acres. This means about 50 percent of the total area available for reclamation lies in these three States, which are comparatively sparsely populated regions. Naturally, the C. T. O, together with all the available resources of the States concerned for the purpose, will have to launch on these vast stretches of difficult lands with militant zeal, and missionary fervour.

For the other States, the problem shall be comparatively easier with their relatively smaller areas of land, and bigger concentrations of heads. It is for this reason in particular that the States possessed of vast culturable tracts present ample scope for state-enterprise in the domain of agriculture. Rather than making amateurish experiments of Joint Co-operative Farming by herding together the reluctant, existing landholders, which are bound to damp the enthusiasm of the producers, and ultimately result in depressing the yield per acre, it is more advisable to embark on these virgin lands, where all the sine-qua-non of the success of the state-owned-and-managed, as well as Joint Co-operative Farms even on ideological basis, may be conveniently made available. If the results obtaining even on these projects are not very encouraging, it may not amount to be a wise policy to have the extension of its application on a country-wide scale—an experiment for which the nation is little prepared for the present.

Even in these virgin tracts, the State-farms, the Joint Co-operative Farms, peasant-holdings of economic size, and the private farms of the maximum acreage, permissible under the policy of land-ceilings, may be tried to co-exist, with a view to enable to judge the relative efficiency of each form of agricultural pattern in a wider socio-economic perspective, as also the capacity to bring about a speedy transformation of the waste-lands into smiling fields of vegetation. Further, if still, these vast waste tracts are beyond the comprehension and the capacity of the various ways and measures of reclamation suggested together, the private enterprise may be invited to contribute its mite on reasonable terms, if it is prepared to do so, for a student of economics sees not much of the weight in the logic of hollow stunts, and impracticable hallucinations, incapable of delivering the goods in time.

If the dogma of socialistic pattern, because of its incapacity and inherent weaknesses of human nature, fails to fill

6. The latest figure is 16.67 lakh acres. Source: India 1959.

the hungry stomachs by commensurate taming of the empty lands, it is quite time for us to reconsider the entire issue in its realistic perspective, and make suitable relaxations in our doctrinaire approach, with a view to avoid the rigidity of the principles, which hamper the speedy progress. This may pave the way for those who have willingness, ability, capacity, and necessary means to expedite the exploitation of our so far neglected resources of land to the advantage of the nation as a whole, even if the returns are wholly appropriated by the exploiters on the basis of individual enterprise. There seems to be nothing unethical or anti-national about it. On the other hand, the barren lands, presenting a dry and drab look to the eyes, may turn into smiling fields, full of corn and crops. Socialism being a chameleon-like creed, a dynamic approach in agricultural industry, too, is not incompatible with the tenets and practice of socialism.

Cost of Reclamation

The cost of reclamation of the fallow-lands, over-grown with grass only, may vary from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 per acre even through manual labour, the labourers using their ordinary and conventional tools and implements. This means that 58.7 million acres of land may conveniently be reclaimed with our internal finances and local populace, with an investment of about 1,500 million rupees. It is on these fields that the experiment of Joint Co-operative Farming can be carried on with greatest amount of ease, and some measure of success, too, if care and tact, foresight and fairness are not forlorn.

These being no man's lands so far, the States can allot specific plots for specific number of persons, to be owned and worked in common. The workers, too, getting it as a windfall, have no reason to lament or grudge, while their acute state of poverty and abysmal unemployment may stand good security to accentuate them to do their best, and contribute their maximum for the best exploitation of these resources, for it is in this, that the provision of their own bread lay. The ventures, with adequate state financial aid in the beginning, are likely to prove a gainful proposition to all concerned. The amounts so advanced by the States could be realized in easy instalments from the Joint Co-operative Farms so registered.

Now, not fallow lands, but culturable wastes, over-grown with trees, bushes and long roots, so difficult to deal with will confront us with serious difficulties in their reclamation. The cost of their clearance in these areas may, sometimes, prove even prohibitive. The author during the course of certain operations on reclamation of waste-lands observed that normally a team of hundred workers, with an in-put of eight hours of hard work per day, was required to reclaim an acre of moderately grown shrubs and bushes. In slightly tougher conditions, it might need even 1,200 man-hours (150 man-days) to deal with an acre of land.

On an average rate of Re. 1.25 per labourer per day of 8 hrs. work—the average current wage-rate obtaining for various States of Indian Union-the cost of reclamation may vary from Rs. 125 to to Rs. 200 per acre. On an average cost of Rs. 150 per acre, something like 9,000 million rupees may be required-of course all in Indian Rupee, with no foreign exchange component required-for reclamation of another 53.6 million acres of waste-lands available at present for reclamation out of the total uncultivated area of 97.337 million acres reported for the year 1953-54-the balance being considered as unsuited for agriculture, and hence, left out of our purview for the time being.

Naturally, the provision of Rs. 900 crores, looked as an absolute figure-may be a task beyond the capacity of our Government, who have so many commitments of equal importance to meet. But taking the vast magnitude of our agricultural labour-force, constituting 30.4 percent of the total rural population of India, besides millions of under-employed peasants, and lakhs of comparatively better off farmers, left even after the imposition of ceilings, the task of reclamation of 53.6 million acres should not appear incapable of attaining, even with a magic wand, if the people can be taken into confidence, and further provided that the State adopts a clear vision and a realistic approach, worked with crusaders' fervour and dashing enthusiasm to attain the objective in view.

In this connection, over a lakh of dis-possessed land-owners in the wake of imposition of ceilings on land-holdings, together with their resources in cash and kind, strengthened further with the compensation payable to them for their surplus lands, may constitute substantial resources, seeking avenues of gainful employment. That before these resources are frittered away on unproductive items of expenditure, it behoves quite in fitness of the occasion to canalise these finances of the so-called expropriated for the reclamation of waste-lands, or better exploitation of our agricultural industry—the lack of capitalization being the chronic ailment of this industry in particular for decades of our economic history together—in case the alternative agencies, viz., the State, the Co-operatives, etc., are not in a position to undertake this tremendous task within the next few years' time.

Holding no briefs for the concentration of land in the hands of a fewer hands, the first preference in the matter of allotment of the culturable wastes, should go to the co-operatives of the landless labour, if they can arrange for the necessary resources, and speedy reclamation of the land within a stipulated time-limit of a certain specified number of years. The State, too, if it can, may launch vigorously and extensively for its own account; but if the task proves too heavy to be borne by either parties concerned, taken together, within a reasonable period of time, say the third five-year plan, the vast agricultural resources should not be cast over-board to waste and rust for purely ideological considerations of doubtful ethical existence and importance, or the purely vote-catching devices, divorced of practical considerations, and the wider interests of the nation as a whole.

Under these sets of circumstances, it is desirable that the State should invite applications from all willing parties, and allot the lands accordingly in a certain order of priority, viz., in that of Joint Co-operatives of landless labour, State Farms, uneconomic land-holders, etc., and finally to the persons already holding maximum holdings permissible under the laws of the State concerned. The ceiling-limits may suitably be relaxed under such circumstances, if the lessees are willing to reclaim the land on reasonable terms and conditions, with their own resources, within the first two years, or so, of the allotment.

With a view to provide necessary inducements, and working initiative, the newly allotted lands may further be exempted from paying land-revenue or agricultural income-tax—wherever payable—for another period of three years or so beyond the stipulated time-limit of reclamation provided under the terms and conditions of allotment. There seems to be nothing wrong in principle or practice in following this line of action,

even by placing extra ceiling-limits for wastelands, if they can be worked to the advantage of the nation as a whole.

The move this way shall usher us into better distribution of land, more production of agricultural goods, more income to the States in the shape of rent or revenue, better employment opportunities for the toiling landless labour in the villages, and over and above all, the increase in the national income by leaps and bounds over so short a period of time. This also stands for more resources being made available hereby for utilization in the fourth plan for its very ambitious launchings.

The author harbours least doubts about the practicability of reclamation of the entire area of uncultivated lands within next two or three years, if a fine balance is struck in the measures suggested above, to suit best the interests of the nation as a whole. The State wo'nt have to invest the resources beyond its capacity. But this essentially presupposes a pragmatic approach and bold action, giving priority to economic problems on a rationalized basis, rather than harping on melodious tunes, shorn of realism.

RURAL ATTITUDE TO CHANGE

By: Y. C. ARYA

INDIA has based her hopes of progress on changing her villages, socially and economically, through the Community Projects. With rising interest in bringing about these changes amongst the villagers, it is important to see what their views are about changing themselves. The rural people are often characterized, "Resistant towards change" (as their personality trait). It is then vital to answer the questions: Are not the villagers willing to accept change? Do not they like to respond to schemes launched out to bring changes in their way of life? Are they averse and opposed to changes.? If so, why and to what extent?

An attempt was made through a sociological research in a village of Uttar Pradesh, to study the attitude of rural people towards change and to determine the dynamics of social change, i. e. what changes would be accepted more readily than the others and the reason for them. It was hoped that this study would help in answering the questions raised. Their attitude towards the following aspects was studied :—

1. Education.
2. Cottage Industry.
3. Panchayats.
4. Various Social Values.
5. Material Aspects.

A. ASPECTS ACCEPTABLE FOR CHANGE

1. Material Aspects

Material aspects find comparatively easy acceptance while changes in various social values are mostly resisted. Any change in the material aspect does also bring about a change in their non-material aspects. When a change is brought in their usual way of treating Small Pox (of offering worships to goddess Kali) by the introduction of small pox vaccination, it also affects their religious faith in disease curing powers of the Goddess. The provision of a Radio set in a village necessarily tells them that it is not the ghost that comes and speaks in human voice, but these are the miracles of science. Inspite of such an effect of the changes in the material aspects on the

non-material aspects of rural life, it is interesting to note that changes in the former are readily accepted while in the latter greatly resisted.

The reasons for such a great acceptance of material aspects are many fold. The usefulness and advantages of the various articles included under the material aspect like a Radio, a Cycle, Electricity or a pucca house, can be readily demonstrated. Rural people need not wait long to understand their utility and to get convinced of their usefulness. For instance, it is only a matter of once tuning the radio, to demonstrate to the rural people its usefulness as a source of entertainment. In fact, the usefulness of many of these has already been seen by them since a long period. Secondly, the material aspects greatly reduce the physical drudgery of the users and add to their comfort immediately. This is an advantage which is most desired by all, who earn their livelihood by their own hard physical labour. Thus this advantage of the material aspects makes them readily acceptable. Thirdly, a change in the material aspects, does not directly attack their religious and social sentiments which have grown and developed for centuries in the past. A radio, for example, may change their religious and social beliefs gradually, but that will go as a slow process, without letting them feel that a change is being brought in them.

Thus, in the sphere of material aspects on being questioned, 95% of them were willing to have electricity in their village and about 93% wanted to have a radio in their village. The same percentage wanted to have and to learn to make a Smokeless Chulah by themselves, about 85% wanted to change their Kaccha house with pucca ones and about 97% wanted to ride a cycle of their own.

2. The Cottage Industry

Next to the material aspects it is the cottage industry that finds easy acceptance. The village had a nucleous of the "Basket Making" as the cottage industry being followed by some. On being questioned 65% of the sample were willing to come regularly to learn to make baskets if such a facility could be extended to them. The reason, which they frankly accept for the acceptance of cottage industry is, that they pass their leisure hours either in gossiping or sitting idle and that they can add to their income by adopting some small cottage industry as their subsidiary means of earning. However, there is little acceptance of taking up the cottage industries as their primary occupation, obviously because there is risk involved in this completely changing over of the occupation.

3. The Panchayats

The existing set up and the working of panchayats (as under Panchayat's Act 52) was not considered satisfactory and a change in the panchayats greatly found favour. There appeared to be an increasing consciousness about the panchayats, resulting in criticisms about their working.

4. The Education

Education of village boys also finds great favour. Most of them have a strong desire to educate their sons. Those who are reluctant to send their sons to schools are so, for they think that their sons on becoming educated shall not be of any use to them. They shall not help them in their own occupation and in house-hold work. The education of girls is, however, strongly resisted. This is because they fear that due to education their daughters shall lose character and become fashionable. They shall in no way be helpful to their husbands or to their village. Nevertheless there seems

to be acceptance of providing some religious education to the girls.

5. The Caste System

Amongst the various aspects of caste system, it is only in their 'Methods of Worships' that a change is acceptable. On being asked, 95% thought that the Mallahas (fishermen) have equal right to worship God, and 55% of Brahmins did not see any harm if a Brahmin goes to conduct Puja in a mallah's house. Changes in other aspects of the caste system such as inter-caste marriages, or intermixing of the lower and higher castes, are strongly resisted. When asked, 75% said that it was proper for the father of a boy who married a girl of lower caste, either to murder the boy or to disinherit him.

B. ASPECTS THAT ARE RESISTED FOR CHANGE.

1. Purdah

Great reluctance is shown in accepting any change in the Purdah system. 77% did not accept any change in the Purdah and thought it to be an absolute necessity in their village. There were only 5% who said that Purdah should be abolished. The rest 18% did not accept a complete abolition of Purdah from the village but they did want some change to be brought about. They wanted the Purdah to become less strict. Change in the Purdah is not accepted because of three main reasons.

Firstly, because they are of the opinion that the women do not have any special difficulty in practicing Purdah.

Secondly, because they are not at all aware of the many ill-effects of Purdah and think that it is in no way harmful to women folk.

Thirdly, they consider Purdah necessary in order to maintain the integrity of the character of the village women. When asked, 72.5% thought that since ther was little purdah in cities, the women in cities were characterless.

2. The Widow Marriage

Widow marriages are considered to be responsible for the loose character of women, and hence are strongly resisted. The idea of widow marriages does not find favour, even in cases where women have become widows at a very early age before going to their husband's house. So much so that it is thought better for the parents of such widows to take up the burden of giving some money to their widow daughters, for their whole life rather than to marry them second time.

3. The Religion and Superstition

Superstitions are found to be greatly prevailing. Any change to shed them off is not welcomed. Ghosts are considered to be a reality. In case of mental illness of a man, they prefer to call an ojha rather than a doctor. Idol worship amongst Hindus is considered the best way of worshipping and no change in this method is accepted.

4. Some Customs

Any change in the present set up of some customs, that are universally followed is resisted. One interesting custom among them is the husband-wife relationship. The idea of calling one's wife by her name is not at all accepted. Similarly it is also felt unfair on the part of the wife to take her meals before the husband takes. Most of them expect their wives to remain standing or sit on a lower level before them. The resistance to change in these customs obviously reflects a lower status of women, but it is interesting to note that majority of men consider that their wives are in no way inferior to them.

On trying to analyse whether literates or illiterates accept the change more

readily, it was found that there is no appreciable difference. Thus the little education such as the ability of putting signatures, of reading news papers and books, which categorizes them under literate head does not seem to be having any bearing on the acceptance of change. The literates resist change as much as the illiterates do.

It is generally said, that the villages are changing, but little indication is given as to what the nature of the change is. The present study was undertaken to try to understand the nature of change in the villages. There seemed to be a willing acceptance for new material aspect (Better houses, better transport etc.) On the other hand changes which effected old traditions (Purdah, Widow marriages, Girls' Education) or those that affected religious beleifs or practices e. g. Vaccination seemed to be resisted strongly. There was little difference between the attitudes of the literates and the illiterates with reference to the various aspects of change. To be effective in rural work, it is imperative that the nature of change in villages and the reaction of the villagers to these changes be understood.

AN APPROACH TO THE THIRD FIVE-YEAR PLAN

By : J. R. CHAWLA

PLANNED economic development in India, says Tinbergen, is an "investment planning" *par excellence*, aiming at, what we call, a self—sustained economic growth. In the First Five Year Plan we aimed at reinvestment of 7 to 11% of the national income while in the second plan the figure stood at 11 to 15% of the national income with capital—output ratio of 3 : 1. We are now to see what should be the investment magnitude of the third plan and also the aims, the technical coefficient, and the macro variables. This can be, however, only an explanatory study because any approach to the third plan depends, to a large extent, on the frution of the second plan and other vast unforeseen forces.

Aims of the Third Plan

In our third plan we shall have broadly the same aims and objects as given in the second plan, namely increased tempo of capital goods sector, employment potentiality, and egalitarian distribution within a democratic framework. Judging from this angle we find four fundamental bases-first, the plan cannot be, in any case, smaller than the second plan ; secondly, there must be an industrial sector whose production-cum-circulation lag tends to minimum because these industries, with economic plants, can cater the home market quite effectively and to that extent relieve the inflationary potential ; thirdly, capital goods sector must expand at a more accelerated pace than the consumer goods sector and finally, private sector must be induced to participate with more enthusiasm. It is, perhaps, on these grounds that a tentative plan outlay of Rs. 9,900 crores has been suggested.

Targets of the Third Plan

It is in the light of these aims and objects that we can endeavour to analyse the targets of the third plan. With a population growing at the rate of 2.2 million *per annum*, it is estimated that we are to achieve a *per capita* income of

Rs. 398 by 1965-66 with a total national income of Rs. 17,260/ crores. This, it is estimated, will feed the 17.3 million total working population out of the total population of 434 milion (i.e. 261 million will be the unproductive population in 1965-66). Given these basic figures we shall now approach to the realistic investment magnitude and the fundamental problems.

The Fundamental Problems

In the formulation of the Third Five-Year Plan we shall have to encounter three fundamental problems relating to investment magnitude, unemployment problem and the problem connected with the mobilization of resources.

In the first place if we are to double the *per capita* income in 25 years, the investment magnitude of Rs. 9,900 crores is compatible. Moreover since our population growth increases with random shocks an allowance for this has also to be made compatible with the general outlay.

Secondly, the problem of unemployment has to be solved if any substantial progress is to be achieved. In the U.S.S.R. the urgency of this problem was realized and by 1930, when the economic level of 1913 was barely achieved, unemployment was completely eliminated. The Prospective Planning Division of the Planning Commission indicates that 12 million jobs, of which 10 million will be in the non-agricultural sector, will be created during the third plan period with an investment outlay of Rs. 9,900 crores. In the first plan we had a total investment of Rs 3,100 crores to create employment for 4.5 million people : in the second plan the outlay was Rs. 6,200 crores for an employment target of 9 million people, and, therefore, in the third plan we must have an investment of not less than Rs. 9,000 crores to create employment for 12 million leaving still 2 million unemployed.

The third fundamental problem is related with the financial approach. The financial feasibility depends, to a considerable extent, on the rate of increase of national income in real terms. If it increases rapidly then the picture seems bright otherwise greater strain on consumption for capital formation may have an adverse effect on social and economic growth. Unfortunately the community consumption schedule is indetermined and we cannot say anything about our marginal propensity to save primarily due to the cyclical fluctuations of our agricultural pattern. Thus the figure of Rs. 9,900 crores is not ambitious. This also includes the availability of foreign exchange which must amount to not less than Rs. 3,000 crores. Moreover since the domestic resources at the particular levels of economic developments have not so far been scientifically estimated any increase in investment outlay shall be depended largely on foreign investment, if the dilemma of increasing cost-price ratio and the declining purchasing power has to be solved.

Macro Variables in the Third Plan

Economic growth is always based on certain models. In the context of our planning, we do not have any rigid model but certain economic variables embodied in the Lewis-Nurkse, Harrod-Domar and Mahalanobis models have been implied. The economic growth is conditioned by these variables like the value of the 'multiplier' and of 'multiplicand', the capital output ratio and the choice of technique, the marginal propensity to consume and so on. All of them emphasise on two aspects—first, the greater is the proportion of reinvestment to the national income, the greater is the degree of economic development,

and secondly, the grater is the proportion of capital goods to consumer goods, the quicker shall we reach our goal (Dobb's Pursuit Curve). The most important of these variables, however, is the growth of population which needs to be considered in greater details.

Economic growth *per se* means 'change in strategic production function'. In our economy the proportion of agriculture to non-agriculture is 70 : 30 whereas it is 20 : 80 or even 15 : 85 in the advanced industrial economies. This structural change, according to Nurkse and Singer, can be brought about by disrupting the existing land—man ratio, i.e. by exodus from the rurul areas. In this context of population growth Singer has the formula $D = Sp - r$, where D denotes the rate of development, S is saving-income ratio, r is the rate of population growth and p the increase in incremental capital-output ratio. In our economy it is estimated that 20% of the national income is spent annually on that group of young children which does not attain the age of working population (i.e. 15 years). A large population is a 'liability' to a poor economy and the so-called 'planned parenthood' is no remedy. Mr. Morarji Desai, therefore, argues rightly that intensification of economic development and a successive bigger plans is the only answer-not the popularization of contraceptives or a massive retaliation against human fecundity.

The Fiscal Policy

The *raison d' etre* for a proper taxation, apart from revenue purpose is to reduce the marginal propensity to consume, at least during the period of planned economic growth, and hence redistribution of income should be implemented cautiously; secondly the forced saving through increased deficit financing is no proper remedy. The divergence between investment and saving, if not handled properly, can explode into an economic crisis. Beside deficit financing three other aspects have to be taken into account while framing the Third Five Year Plan; first, a check on unproductive expenditure, especially on defence and the so-called 'cultural delegations; secondly, the trend of administrative/productivity ratio especially expenditure on civil service has to be arrested and lastly, proper inducement to the private sector should be given because its propensity to save is very high.

Foreign Aid and Capital Formation

Since 1947, it is estimated, we have imported foodgrains of Rs. 1200 crores. During the course of the Third Five-Year Plan if atleast 5% increase in agricultural output is not realized the imports of food-grains would be a bottleneck in the investment plan. The raw material for industries with high import contents depend on how much can we produce within. Any import of these raw materials is a potential leakage. Tentatively we can take it granted that industrial output must increase atleast by 200% with 1960-61 as base *pari pasu* with an increase of not less than 125% of agricultural output.

This is important not because it will help capital formation in the whole economy but also it will help in, what Dr. Raj has said, the "elimination of rural technique" or, what we call the monetisation of rural India. Secondly, since 1951 we have been depending on foreign investment but foreign capital is not flowing well. According to a report of the National Council of Applied Economic Research entitled *Taxation and Foreign Investment* the main reason for this reluctance is the high taxation rate since 1952. In shap-

ing the Third Five-Year Plan, therefore, we shall have to consider these two factors viz. agriculture *vis-a-vis* industrialisation and the flow of foreign investment.

Conclusion

Finally we must realise that since economic growth *ipso facto* is conditioned to a large extent on non-economic factors particularly cultural values and political elements, no smooth course can be predicted in anticipation. First Five-Year Plan was characterised by financial approach, the Second by physical approach and for the Third Plan we shall require psychological and the numerals approaches. So long as the psychological approach and " emotional integration, " as Dr. Ganguli calls it, is not realised, the planning itself cannot be smooth : it will always be haphazard and lop-sided.

RE-APPRAISAL OF EMPLOYMENT SITUATION IN INDIA

By : Prof. C. L. KHANNA

" WIPE out unemployment, wipe out poverty " was the new slogan adopted by Free India's Government about eight years ago. In order to achieve these ideals, India has been waging a virulent war and many shafts from the armoury of the State have gone "off". But many of them have missed the mark of mitigating the chronic unemployment. The employment-oriented second Five-Year Plan has also failed in its objective and unemployment still remains a challenge writ large on India's horizon. With two more years to run, there are visible signs of deterioration in the situation. Mr. Gulzari Lal Nanda, Union Minister for Labour and Planning, himself made a clean confession of this at a recent meeting of the Central Employment Committee :

" I feel it is incumbent on us to explore unorthodox ways of enlarging the scope of productive employment in the country for the many who cannot be absorbed in the normal pattern of employment opportunities created through plan investments and the regular agency of the market ".

This is a clear recognition of the complexity and the magnitude of the problem. According to the available data, the end-year of the second plan and the following quinquennium will find more idle man-power.

	Second Plan	Third Plan
1. Backlog ...	5.5 million	7 million
2. New entrants...	10.0 million	14 million
total unemployment	15.5 million	21 million

Of course, the Planning Commission visualized at the very start of the Second Five-Year Plan that "it would be incorrect to hold out the hope that full employment could be secured by the end of the Second Plan". The commission held that the goal of full employment has to be achieved by a series of planned efforts lasting over a period beyond the Second Plan. What causes serious and legitimate concern is the rising trend of the unemployment curve. The backlog in the last year of the Second Plan would, according to the above figures, be 1.5 millions more than in the opening year. The addition to the labour force also indicates a minimum of 40 percent rise during the Third Plan

period over the previous quinquennium owing to the rapid growth of population which is estimated to be 2 percent per annum as against the present rate of 1.25 percent.

The upward tendency in unemployment is, further, corroborated by the statistics of the educated unemployed based on those of the Employment Exchanges.

DATE	EDUCATED UNEMPLOYED	TOTAL NO. OF APPLICANTS ON THE LIVE REGISTER	PERCENTAGE OF UNEMPLOYED
March 1956	2.22 lakhs	7.05 lakhs	30%
March 1959	3.64 lakhs	12.18 lakhs	30%

During the three years (1956-59), the unemployed among the educated class or our society has mounted up by about 50 percent. While it is a sad commentary on our employment efforts, the difficulties circumventing them are too enormous and complex. It is, for instance, hard to arrest the torrent of babies, to re-orientate our educational pattern, to change the attitude of the employment-seekers for white-collar jobs (about 86 percent of the educated registrants in the employment Exchange seek such jobs) and to alter the investment pattern so as to generate more of employment opportunities.

Employment is a function of investment in the various economic sectors. The Second Five-Year Plan envisaged an aggregate expenditure of Rs. 4800 crores (later revised to the new low of Rs. 4500 crores). But was it adequate? On an average, factory industries like cotten textile, sugar and cement would require capital equipment worth Rs. 3000-8000 per worker and heavy industries like iron and steel, fertilizers and petroleum require Rs. 100.000 or more per employed person. The total volume of investment required for employing millions of the unemployed workers must consequently, run into billions of rupees. Have we got the requisite capital equipment? If not, shall we switch on to such industries as would need less of capital? We have emphasised the latter in the Senond Plan. The income-content of the worker in the cottage industries is very low and as much the employment opportunities so generated are but a travesty. If the twin problem of unemployment and poverty is to be solved our two-pronged attack should be on increasing the number of jobs as also on the real income-content from each.

Change of Pattern

To meet the increasing unemployment it is not merely enough to step up capital investment. It is also obligatory to change the pattern of employment through a corresponding change in the investment pattern. Dr. V. K. R. V. Rao suggested the following employment pattern during the Second Plan period:

Category	1956		1961		Difference between 1956 and 1961	
	Number in millions	% of total	Number in millions	% in total	Number in millions	%
1. Agriculture	109	71.9	107.8	66.9	−1.2	−5.0
2. Industry	14.7	9.7	17.3	10.7	+2.6	+1.0
3. Construction	1.5	1.0	3.7	2.3	+2.2	+1.3
4. Transport & Communications	2.3	1.5	4.0	2.5	+1.7	+1.0
5. Trade	7.7	5.1	9.7	6.0	+2.0	+0.9
6. Services	16.4	10.8	18.7	11.6	+2.3	+0.8
Total	151.6	100.0	161.2	100.0	+9.6	,,

In the employment pattern shown in this table, greater emphasis has been laid on construction, followed by industry, transport and communication, trade, services and agriculture. If the proportion of the "idlers" in agriculture is, thus, reduced progressively it will reach 55 percent by 1971. It is possible that in the initial phase of economic development the absolute number of workers engaged in primary industries may increase while the proportion of the working force will decline appreciably. It is only when sufficient advances have been made in development that the absolute load on agriculture is reduced. Until then we cannot reasonably claim to have solved the rural unemployment or under-employment problem.

New Problems

Low employment tempo apart, the growing and dynamic economy of our country with "expansion" as its key-note has been confronted with new problems. We have undertaken the construction of many multi-purpose river valley projects; iron and steel plants and other manufacturing factories. With the completion of some of them during the course of the next few years, the problem of absorbing the "demobbed" personnel would be very crucial. Unless alternative occupations for the engineers and other skilled and unskilled labour are provided, the pressure on the existing small employment opportunities will be unprecedented.

It is betimes that suitable schemes are worked out to avoid the anarchy in planning. Another problem of far-reaching importance is how to have suitable alternative employment for workers who have been rendered unemployed as a result of closure of establishment units, e. g. in cotton textiles. Thirdly how to keep in employ the workers in those concerns where financial or other bottlenecks have driven them to a state of liquidation. Fourthly, about 70 percent of the registrants in the Employment Exchanges are between 18 and 25 years. The inability of these Exchanges to offer them suitable vacancies may lead to frustration.

To solve these problems, it has been suggested that a special fund be created (either by the levy of a special cess or Government subsidy or both) in each industry (1) to re-train the workers for alternative jobs and to promote thereby increased labour mobility and (2) to provide relief to the retrenched personnel.

While the first purpose is commendable the second is controversial. Considering the vast millions who are chronically unemployed or under-employed and for whom there is no question of any kind of social security being provided by the State at the present time, the uneconomic underwriting of employment in the case of a particular—and limited—section of the population is meaningless in ethics and, in time, may prove dangerous in politics.

A suggestion under active consideration of the Government is the setting up of a central co-ordinating machinery to find employment for workers in manufacturing and other establishments threatened with closure. This machinery will work in collaboration with the Central and State Governments, employers in the public and private sectors and workers' organisations. In fact the national Government has already promulgated an Order for compulsory notification to the Employment Exchanges the vacancies to be filled up by the employer, private or public. Accordingly all employment will henceforward be made through Employment Exchanges. One of the measures to counter the trend to get registered with the Employment

Exchanges is that the Employment Exchanges should take periodical tests and prepare panels for the registrants for clerical and allied categories of posts.

CEC Recommendations

The Central Employment Committee has recommended that the Government should assume power to intervene in the winding up of the concerns so as to safeguard against the deployment of the workers and, if necessary, it should revive, reorganise and run the uneconomic closed units. To boost up employment potential the committee has made further recommendations as follows :—

1. In the rural and urban areas viable industrial estates be set up with a view to accelerate the tempo of industrialization in the country. The new factories would, of course, require increased transport and power. They will tend to arrest the impending migration of the educated rural-ites to towns although the employment situation there has not improved much.

2. In the Third Five-Year Plan, the pattern of investment should be so formulated as to have increased employment potential. Mere expenditure of a huge amount of resources would not do ; the manner of expenditure is even more important for the achievement of our ideal.

3. In order to meet the growing demand for skilled and trained workers, apprenticeship training schemes should be launched.

4. Small-scale and cottage industries should be set up on a regional basis and should serve as auxiliaries to large-scale industries. Our 'industrial pyramid' would thus be broad-based.

5. In at least one district in each State a pilot scheme should be launched to assess the employment potential, the nature and extent of unemployment vis-a-vis the developmental schemes in progress.

6. The Industries (Development & Regulations) Act should be extended to all the iudustries in India.

The above recommendations, if and when implemented, can go a long way in meeting the chronic and colossal problem of unemployment in our country. An eternal vigilance by an expert body is essential.

Now that we are on the threshold of the Third Plan, efforts must be directed to have a sound basis for expanding employment through intensive use of technology and science and the adoption of modern concepts of industrial and commercial organisation. Labour-intensive industries have failed to yield adequate per capita income for a worker to have a reasonably high living standard. The income-content of a cottager is deplorably low and the employment is but a farce. The evaluation of the Ambar Charkha schemes in respect of employment opportunities is very revealing. The nursing of cottage industries as the purveyors of employment is ideological and should be abandoned. Dynamic thinking is called for to absorb the backlog of seven million plus double or more of the new entrants during the Third Plan period. Unorthodox thinking alone can catch up with the "unorthodox ways for enlarging the scope of productive employment in the country".

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION IN ANDHRA PRADESH

By: GOPAL RAO EKBOTE

THE major hurdle in showing a spectacular progress in education is, of course, the large funds required. The ways and means for financing educational development in India were considered by a Committee appointed by the Government of India in 1950. The Committee recommended that the Union Government should expend 10% of their annual revenue on education and the State 20%. The suggestion of the Committee was the minimum but it appears from the budgets of the severel States including that of ours, that this recommendation has been treated as maximum. Neither the Union Government nor some of the States spend even that much suggested by the Committee.

The per capita expenditure on education is very much low in all the States in India. Comparatively our State is spending even less. The latest figures show that while Kerala spends Rs. 5.1, Madras Rs. 5.7, Bombay Rs. 7, we in Andhra Pradesh spend only Rs. 4.3 per head.

We have never spent on education more than 20% of the annual revenue. In fact we had provided only 16 or 18% for many years. It has also become a regular feature that we do not utilise the entire amount provided for. The Education Minister in his budget speech conceded " despite our best efforts during the first two years of the Plan, we could spend only Rs. 181 lakhs.........I must, however, say that it would be difficult to avoid completely any short-fall in the total plan outlay of Rs. 1,279 lakhs at the end of the Second Five-Year Plan. " Internal arrangement of the budget has to be judiciously made. Rival claims of different branches of education have to be appropriately settled and keeping in view the relative utility of education to different groups, the amount has to be equitably divided.

The Government of Madras appears to have made the following division of their Educational Budget. It provides 6.54 crores or nearly 50% of the total expenditure to be spent on primary education including higher elementary basic schools, Rs. 2.77 crores or about 21% for secondary education and Rs. 1.10 crores or nearly 10% for teachers' training schools or other special schools and Rs. 1.26 crores i. e., nearly 9% on University education, while our State last year had provided 6.45 crores for primary education out of a total budget for education of Rs. 11.6 crores which comes to roughly 55% of the expenditure on education. For secondary education 2.30 crores were provided which means 20% of the expenditure and University education got 1.36 crores i. e., 9% of the expenditure ; while technical education received 1.88 crores i.e.. 9%, the administration was provided with Rs. 83 lakhs which means 7% of the educational budget.

It is true that no hard and fast rules can be laid down for such a division, but with the adoption of the national pattern of education and with full realisation of the relative importance one can broadly say that the primary education including the lower secondary, junior and senior basic schools should get the lion's share. This is not to reduce the importance of the technical or higher education, it only means that the first thing is given first place. It is therefore necessary not only

to allot more money, say, not less than about 25% of the budget for education, but this amount must also be properly distributed with an emphasis on elementary education coupled with training of teachers and short-falls avoided.

How the improper and inadequate provision and short-falls affect the general output in elementary education can be seen from the results achieved in the first two years of the Second Five-Year Plan. For example, in Telangana the short-fall in 1957-58 was to the tune of several lakhs which naturally affected the educational programme and at the end of the third year of the Second Five-Year Plan, Telangana's primary education programme fell short of the normal target by 362 schools which works out to over 33%. Similar is the story in regard to the conversion or opening of new basic schools. Improvements in all these directions must necessarily be made to quicken the pace of development.

But all this still leaves a vast gap, a bottomless pit in our primary education. Some 70% of the children are entirely withdrawn from any educational influence at the age of eight. Education which ends at that age is not an education. Large numbers of children especially in rural areas leave schools after attending for two or three years. This is a form of wastage which has to be eliminated. It might be plausibly argued that all the monies spent on elementary education is wasted, because the system on the face of it is absurd. If you taught a child the letters of the alphabet and then stopped, you would probably consider that you had thrown time and money away in teaching him the A. B. C. Yet that is what we do in our elementary education. Elementary education is not complete in itself; it is preparatory, it prepares the pupil to go on to something else and puts his foot on the first step of the ladder of the knowledge. But in fact the vast majority goes on to nothing else. They never climb higher on the ladder than the first step. What had they gained adequate to the vast sums spent on them? The chief use of our present elementary system is to enable a minority to proceed to further edcuation and the vast majority of the population is left without any kind of education.

This situation must be changed and every child should at least get eight full years' education. In education the requirements cannot be satisfied by partial stages or phases; for either all who want education get it or they do not. No infiltration or diffusion theory really works here. The idea that there may be a phased programme would sound inappropriate in this case. It would produce the discontent and inequality that has been produced by the infiltration theory.

Anyone who is conversant with the magnitude of the problem as well as the resources available, will realise that the Government alone cannot fulfil the entire obligation of providing educational facilities to all children even of the age group of 6—11. Something rather odd, however has been happening in so far as the entire responsibility of educating the young is being transferred to the Government by the people. The Second Plan repeats the directive principle. Yet education is the responsibility of the society and the most the Government can do is to share and assist the efforts of society and encourage it. It is in this way that an adjustment of means and ends becomes easy and economical. This was so in India in the past and it is even now so in an advanced country like America.

In this view of the matter the Government's policy of taking over the primary schools and thus nationalising

to an extent the primary education district by district deserves reconsideration. It is not that the nationalisation of elementary education is inherently bad, but the hard fact is that it does not seem to be possible in the near future.

Such a policy retards the private efforts in this field and creates a feeling in the masses that it is the entire obligation of the State and it must be discharged by the State alone. People must be induced to take active responsibility according to their means. The public and the private efforts in this field should be in a position to cover the entire area. The vast numbers cannot be managed in any other way. The theory of phased implementation now suggested will not work. These numbers are already straining the existing capacity of the institutions and the resources of the Government, without yielding any satisfaction anywhere.

As a matter of fact inadequate facilities and haphazard modes of education in over-crowded schools have been doing more harm to the cause of education than anything else. The grants-in-aid rules and the rules of recognition require material changes in order to effectively make the people participate in this activity. The tendency now visible in certain private quarters is to take as much grant as they get, but not to show readiness to give what they can and ought to, must be discouraged. This is a state of things that augurs no good for the efforts made at such great pains.

Although Art. 45 of the Constitution places responsibility upon the State, bearable burden must also be placed on the people in order to fulfil this obligation. This may imply that the burden of expense should be so widely distributed as to be equal to the paying capacity of the people in any locality. Certain minimum requirements only should be prescribed in order that the minimum quality desired may be obtained. This will require that the ideas of modern education and its special character should be spread among the people as far as possible. Tradition flows down not from Governments to the young, but from the parents to their children.

If we want to attain even the limited objective of introducing universal, free and compulsary education for the all children upto the age of 11 by the end of Third Plan, we have to take two steps. We have to reduce the cost per pupil to a level consistent with the taxable capacity of the pupil. The only way to do so, without depriving the teachers of a decent wage, is to adopt a larger pupil-teacher ratio as a transitional measure until the financial condition in this respect improves.

This pupil-teacher ratio can be made larger either by adoption of larger classes or by introduction of the shift system in a few or all classes, or by adopting the system of monitors, or by any other suitable method. Secondly it is now realised that compulsion must be introduced as a first step in the campaign to bring all ehildren into school. I do recognise that mere introduction of compulsion will not be enough. But this should not obscure the importance of the fact that it is essential. It is therefore worthwhile to prepare a phased programme of introduction of compulsion and link it with the phased programme of introduction of the National Extension Service Scheme in Development Blocks.

This programme should ensure that statutory compulsion is introduced in every Development Block within a period not exceeding three years from the date of introduction of the N. E. S. Scheme. While implementing this

suggestion, it becomes necessary to review the existing legislation and get it amended suitably. The programme of converting the primary schools to the basic pattern can also simultaneously be undertaken, but it must be linked with the above programme.

Those who had the occasion to read Smt. Durga Bai's report on women's education will readily appreciate the difficult problem facing the country. The percentage of boys attending school in the age group of 6—14 in 1956-57 was about 56, whereas the percentage of girls of the same age group in India attending school was only 23. In the age group of 11-14 the percentage of boys attending school was about 30 but the percentage of girls attending school was only about 8 at the end of the First Five-Year Plan. It is unfortunate that the education of girls has not made as much progress as it should have.

It goes without saying that this problem needs special attention and every effort should be made to quicken the progress of girls' education in our State. Various suggestions to give an impetus to this programme have been made from time to time, which could be effectively implemented. The Ministry of Education have included in the Second Plan a scheme for the expansion of girls' education and training of wowen teachers. Central assistance to the States under the Scheme is available to the extent of 75% of the total expenditure involved. Our State should take maximum advantage of this Scheme.

After the re-organisation of the States on linguistic basis the question of providing educational facilities to the linguistic minorities has become more important. The Central Education Ministry has realised the significance of this aspect and has evolved a scheme under which central aid to the extent of 60% of the total expenditure involved, is made available on permanent basis. The State Government should take full advantage of this scheme and provide fuller and freer facilities to all the linguistic minorities of the State.

Elementary education being the bedrock of our educational system we require teachers who are quite efficient. We have in our State a high percentage of untrained teachers. Particularly in Telangana not only nearly 2/3 of the teachers are untrained but many of them are not even matriculates. Our primary education in consequance suffers in quality.

The existing training facilities are inadequate and the conditions for training are also not very encouraging. The training facilites for women teachers are still poorer. It is therefore necessary not only to increase the number of basic training schools and colleges but it is equally necessary to upgrade the standard of training. Liberal facilities should be provided to the teachers to upgrade their educational and professional standards.

In other progressive countries a degree is considered to be a minimum desirable academic qualification for tbe primary teachers, but we hand over the primary education to the teachers who are not adequately qualified. The Government of India has a scheme for giving grants in order to create training facilities for the teachers. We should take fullest advantage of that scheme and bring down the huge number of untrained teachers.

The centre has various schemes including opening of basic schools, primary and middle schools, introduction of crafts in non-basic schools, opening and improvement of teacher training institutions, transformation of non-basic teachers' institutions into basic, seminars and refresher courses for teachers and

head-masters, improvement in salary scales of teachers, strengthening the inspectorate and other schemes of miscellaneous nature.

It appears from the Government of India's Report that we have failed to take advantage of many of these schemes. In fact in 1955-57 only an amount of Rs. 56,200 was sanctioned out of which an amount of Rs. 28,725 lapsed unutilised, which means that 51% of the grant amount was not utilised, whereas lapses in case of Bombay was 43.2, Kerala 25.2 and Madras only 1.6.

It is therefore necessary to have more effective co-ordination and co-operation between the central ministry of education and our State Government in order to fully participate in all the Schemes and utilise the entire amount sanctioned. Even in case of improvement in the salary of primary school teachers, inspite of the fact that the State Government had proposed revised scales of primary school teachers which were approved by the Government of India, the State Government has not so far taken advantage of the scheme which could have given some relief to the poorly paid teachers. Every effort therefore of the department should be directed to utilise all the available funds from the Centre.

The State Government should undertake an extensive educational survey of the State in order to identify every elementary school and map out and delimit the areas served by the District schools and the areas that could be served by new schools by a suitable grouping of habitations and appropriate location of schools. This will avoid duplicity in schools and ensure fairly equitable distribution of schooling facilities throughout the State.

Finally it is necessary to start considering actively the blue print of the Third Five-Year Plan right from now. The educational survey should help in correctly gauging the requirements and their fulfilment. Experience in Madras State has convincingly proved that it is not possible to frame a satisfactory programme of development on a planned basis if planning perspective is limited to the Second Plan period. It is necessary to envisage a planned development at least upto the end of the Third Five-Year Plan period. As suggested by the States' Education Ministers' Conference a model perspective plan should be prepared keeping in view the suggestions made by the said Conference.

There is a chastened recognition of the greatness of the task lying ahead and awareness of the insufficiency of the means but the persistent hopefulness and unfaltering zeal of both officials and non-officials, if multiplied and intensified, effective advance on great scale can be made.

APPROACH TO AGRICULTURAL LABOUR PROBLEM IN INDIA

By : J. S. GARG

IN the terms of First Five-Year Plan, agricultural labourers are those, who are employed on wages in agricultural occupation. Enough attention had not been given in the past to the problems of agricultural labourers and information concerning the condition under which they live and work have been extremely

meagre. It is only during the past few years that the problem of agricultural labourer in general and that of landless labourers in particular in terms of their place in the structure of rural economy have drawn wider attention. The existance of large number of agricultural labourers, who lack sustained employment and frequently suffer from social handicaps is regarded now as a source of serious weakness and even of instability in the present agrarian system of the country.

The decline in rural industries and increase in frgamentation and sub-divisions of holdings are mainly responsible for driving artisans to part-time labour and peasant farmers to seek casual employment. There is no room for doubt that agricultural labourers constitute a vast and complex problem which has far reaching implications, not only for the rural economy but also in relation to entire process of economic and social development of the country. The extent of the problem has been viewed in a comprehensive manner by Agricultural labour Enquiry, 1950-51.

Magnitude of the Problem

In determining the size of the problem, the definition of agricultural labour is of considerable significance. In terms of Agricultural Labour Enquiry, 1950-51 "An agricultural labour was a person who for more than half of the total number of days in which he actually worked during the year, worked as an agricultural labour." On the basis of this definition 30.4% of the rural families or 88.7% of the rural population or 70% of the total labour force of the country come under the category of agricultural labour. It accounts for 27 crores out of 38 crores of the population of the country. The problem is specially serious in the States of Bihar, Orissa, Madras, Mysore, Travancore-Cochin, Hyderabad and Madhya Pradesh where 39.9%, 43.0%, 53.0%, 42.0%, 39.5%, 42.1% and 40.1% respectively, of rural families account for as agricultural labourers. In Uttar Pradesh, relatively the position is not so serious. 14.3% of the rural families or 86.3% of the rural population in this State earn their livelihood as agricultural labourers. The problem is particularly alarming in parts of South India where 50% of the rural families subsist on this occupation. In the Northern parts of the country it accounts for 10% of the families only. The problem can be viewed with its all serious consequences when it is revealed that in the entire country 50% of the agricultural labourers are landless which comes to about 13.5 crores. It accounts for approximately 28.1% of the entire population of the country.

The magnitude of the problem can be better appreciated if we take into account the position of their employment. For this purpose the agricultural labour force is classified into two groups. (1) Those who have been attached to land owners and work for them on sustained basis known as 'attached' labourers and (2) those, who get casual employment known as Casual labourers. Majority of the agricultural labourers belong to the second group. The percentage of the labourers of this group is estimated to be 85 and the remaining 15% belong to the first group. On the basis of this information it can be rightly said, on a conservative estimate that there are 23 crores casual agricultural labourers and 4 crores attached agricultural labourers.

The period of employment is another factor which is more significant in making one to understand the magnitude of the problem. On the basis of the Second Five-Year Plan a casual labourer

gets an employment on an average for 218 days in a year, 189 days in agriculture and 29 days in non-agricultural work. The period of un-employment of such labourer is for about 98 days during the same period. A casual labourer thus, gets work for wages only for about 7 months and his period of unemployment accounts for 3 months in a year. For two months he gets some self employment.

The attached labourer gets employment, on an average, for 326 days in a year. The Second Plan is assumed to have started with a backlog of 2.8 millions unemployed in rural areas. New entrants to this labour force during the next five years (1956-61) is about 6·2 millions making a total of 9 millions. The total unemployment in the urban areas during the corresponding period is estimated to be 6.3 millions, making a total unemployment of 15.3 millions in the country. As against this it was estimated by the Commission that the additional employment likely to be created under the plan would be about 8 millions, leaving about 7.5 millions unemployed.

If the problem is considered from the point of average annual income per family it is concluded that an agricultural labourer family's earning is Rs. 487/- annually. The per capita income per annum is Rs. 109/- as compared to Rs. 265/-of Industrial labour and Rs. 281/-of income per capita of the country for the same period. Thus, on monthly basis the income of agricultural labour family on an average is Rs. 41/- only. These labourers have been groaning under sub-human conditions. The total land with them does not come to more than 1% of the total cultivated area although their holdings constitute 16.8 % of the total holdings. The economic level of these people is also extremely bad. 26.4 % of the families of the agricultural labourers spend upto Rs. 100/- per consumption unit per year and 36% between Rs. 101/- and Rs. 150/-. The conditions can be better imagined than described.

Approach to the Problem

The low level of living of agricultural labourers is mostly attributed to low wages but lack of sufficient employment opportunities is considered to be more responsible for it. The wages cannot be raised substantially high, because of small holdings and low level of agricultural production. The alternative, there fore, left with us is to explore ways and means to increase employment opportunities. As a section of village community, the economic conditions of agricultural labourers depend mostly upon the state of prosperity in agricultural economy which is only possible by substantially increasing agricultural production through extension of irrigation, intensive cultivation and improvement in agricultural practices. The measure will naturally help in increasing rural employment and simultaneously afford greater employment opportunities to agricultural labourers as well.

The measures in regard to the rehabilitation of land'ess labourers will have to be found out with a view to removing the social and economic causes responsible for such a state of affairs. For this purpose, as has been rightly resolved in the 64th All India Congress Session held at Nagpur, the fixation of cealings on land and vesting of surplus lands in the Panchayats and their management through Co-operative Societies of landless labourers and small peasants will have to be put in practice. This will help in achieving higher production and improving the lot of agricultural labourers as they would also get their share in the production from the land. Maldistribution in the ownership of the

land, exploitative wage rates, and social disabilities will have to be eliminated.

Thus, increase in agricultural production, expansion of economic opportunities, redistribution of land and the provision of social amenities should be some of the important aspects of an integrated approach to the basic problem of agricultural labourers' poverty. The development of more intensive diversified agricultural production and a more diversified occupational structure in rural areas are bound to help in increasing the volume of rural employment and bringing increasing opportunities to agricultural labourers. Such developments will help in developing greater confidence and initiative and ability to avail economic opportunities by them.

Intensive development of village and small industries, agricultural processing and labour co-operatives will also help in expanding work opportunities within the rural economy. Bhoodan movement should be given encouragement and the land so available should be utilised for the resettlement of landless agricultural labourers. The provision for educational facilities and concessions should also form an important part of the comprehensive programmes envisaged for the economic and social development of the agricultural labourers in the country.

Some legislative measures like provision of house sites in villages to agricultural labourers, supply of cheap material for the construction of their houses are worth consideration. Legislation in regard to the minimum wages for all the States and for all the areas of the country will have to be enacted despite certain limitations in its implementation. The above curative measures must be supplemented by preventive measures like family planning to curb the steady increase of population.

The whole situation will have to be viewed and approach be made in the light of the fact that as the Third Five-Year Plan commences, our population will be 42 crores (34 crores in rural and 8 crores in the Urban areas). This population will grow at the rate of 2% in the rural areas and 4.6% in the Urban areas. In other words it will increase by 3.5 crores in rural areas and 1½ crores in urban areas during the period of the Third Plan.

As it is, the unemployment backlog at the end of the Second Plan will be more than 50 lakhs. To this will be added in the Third Five Year Plan period, 1.75 crores in the country's labour force for whom the country will have to make efforts to provide employment. The problems facing agricultural labourers forming the single largest sector of the labour force and laying at the lowest rung of the national economy need urgent and sympathetic understanding, and the raising of their standard of living is undisputably one of the most important economic and social problems of the day.

Government of India is very seriously looking to this problem. During the First Five-Year Plan a provision of Rs. 1.5 crores was made for schemes for the resettlement of landless labourers. In the Second Five-Year Plan, apart from a provision at the Centre, 14 States have schemes estimated to cost about Rs. 5 crores for the settlement of about 20,000 families of landless labourers on 1,00000 acres of land.

WHY AND HOW KHARIF CAMPAIGN IN INDIA

By : D. V. S. CHAUHAN

It is very strange, rather paradoxical that there is scarcity of food grains in a land of plenty and in an agricultural country like India. Though India was an exporting country of food grains formerly but due to low yield per acre, increasing population, hoarding and profiteering, partition of India in 1947, and vagaries of nature, this condition changed altogether and now she is unable to feed her entire population properly. "Poverty in a land of plenty," has become true at present in India.

It is estimated that about 30% of the Indian Population is normally underfed. The per adult availability of food in this country amounts to 2000 calories (F.A.O. Second World Food Survey, 1952) against 3000 calories prescribed as minimum nutritional standard. Even this average is not correct because the larger sections of population hardly get 1200 to 1500 calories per adult per diem (Food Grains Enquiry Committee Report page 40-1957). Mr. J. C. Ghosh-member of Planning Commission, in his talk given in Calcutta on 5th January, 1957, said that according to the latest statistical survey done by U. N. O. India is the most starved country in the world.

All these facts compel us to produce more in order to make the scarcity of food grains scarce in India.

Eversince the food scarcity was felt in this country, Government have tried to increase food production. For this, the first "Grow more food campaign' in 1943, "Self Sufficiency Drive" in 1949, and "Second Grow More Food Campaign" in 1947 were launched and top priority was given to agriculture and irrigation in the First Five--Year Plan. Though some encouraging results have been achieved by these measures, and the food grain prices had come down but not to the level they expected. They could not solve also the food problem appreciably because production of food has not kept pace with the race of the population, which has increased from 23.80 crore in 1901 to 39.5 crore in 1959 at the rate of 1¼% per year. Every year there are 45 lakh additional mouths to be fed for which at least 5 lakh ton additional food grains is needed. But the low productivity per acre of land in India as is clear from the following figures of different countries worsen the situation all the more.

Country	Yield per acre in pounds			
	Wheat	Rice	Sugarcane	Cotton
1. Egypt	1918	2998	70302	535
2. Japan	1713	3444	47534	196
3. U. S. A.	812	2185	43270	261
4. China	989	2433	—	204
5. India	660	1240	34944	89

The country has to produce much larger quantity of food grains to solve the problem of food grain scarcity, to cut the food grain imports, and to increase resources in the next two years in terms of increased food production, so that we may have adequate resources for the Third Five-Year Plan.

The Ministry of Food & Agriculture Government of India in collaboration with the Agriculture Ministries of State Governments had launched an intensive programme "Rabi Campaign" to increase food grains production in the last rabi season. In the same connection "Kharif Campaign" is going to be launched in the next two to three months for increasing food production in the coming kharif season. According to union Food Minister Shri Jain the Kharif Campaign would be extended to the entire country while the Rabi Campaign last year was confined to only eight States.

All those, who are concerned with agriculture whether in Government or in private sector should co-operate and take active interest in this campaign and make it a success. On its success would greatly depend our efforts to increase food production. The various proposed measures to intensify the kharif campaign may be as follows:-

1. Distribution and exchange of improved seed among farmers

Improved seed of kharif crops recommended for the region should be distributed among farmers. Local seed may be exchanged with the improved seed. Better yielding local seed may also be distributed among the farmers. Seed should also be made disease free by treating it with some fungicide like Agrosan G. N., Tillex, Cerason, Lunasan etc. at the distribution centres or the technique of seed treatment should be clearely explained to the farmers with the correct dose of the chemical and the precautions to be observed during the treatment at their homes.

2. Use of green manures

Packets of green manuring crops like Sannai, Dhanicha, Neel, Moong, etc. should b‹ distributed to the farmers, and the technique of green manuring may also be explained to them, so that they may make better use of it according to their local conditions.

3. Use of fertilizers and manures

It has been found that use of fertilizers and manures increase the crop yield considerably. These should be distributed to the farmers through co-operative societies or panchayats, so that they may get them easily. wide publicity should be given for their use.

4. Demonstration of improved methods of cultivation

Improved methods of cultivation and use of various improved implements in kharif crop should be demonstrated by the Extension Staff of the Agricultural Colleges, Gramsevaks and other field staff of the various sections of the Agriculture department at important centres, so that they may be used by the farmers in kharif crops.

5. Protection of crops from insects and diseases

Facilities for timely spraying and dusting of chemicals to protect crop plants in different stages to protect them from insects and diseases may be arranged at various centres, so that considerable loss of food grains may be avoided. Free advice of the experts and timely service for plant protection to the farmers should be easily available.

6. Destruction of weeds

It has been found that weeds alone destroy about 4-5% soil fertility and

reduce the crop yield in India from 10–70%. For this farmers should be encouraged to follow weed free fields. They must destroy weeds from their fields and perform timely interculture operations in kharif crops to get higher yields. Demonstration of chemical weed control should be given at suitable centres for cheap, easy and early destruction of weeds.

7. Distribution of literature

Agriculture literature produced for the guidance of farmers be made easily available to them, so that results of various researches carried on in the laboratories may be best utilized by the farmers in their fields to get higher yields.

8. Facilities for credit

There is a great need for providing credit to small peasants in time to rescue them from the clutches of money lenders and for purchasing the required materials. If a farmer is short of funds, he cannot follow any of the above methods and all his produce will go to the money lender who will hoard it. So there should be enough facilities for providing credit to the farmers in time by the Government.

The success of this campaign depends on better co-operation of agriculture experts and farmers. In the rabi campaign we have seen that red tappism and irresponsibility of some officers hindered the campaign to a great extent. Carelessness on the part of the officials concerned helping the farmers should be objected to. We should above all avoid all drawbacks and give top priority to this campaign in every respect.

Teachers and students of agriculture colleges can help a lot in promoting this campaign. They should come forward and help the nation for solving the most vital problem of the present day. Organizations like Bharat Samaj Sevak, Young Farmers Association, N. C. C. Cadets, Social workers and leaders of teams of workers should come forward and make this campaign a success by moving the farmers to co-operate in this with their own work and by their programmes aiming at creating in the cultivators a desire for better living.

Even members of the Congress Committees can also help by taking active interest in this programme. They can act as liaison men between Government officials and farmers and see that 'whatever help was available from the local administration reaches the cultivators in time.'

It is hoped that the importance of this campaign will not be underestimated, and all of us will try our best to make this campaign a success to help the nation solve the food problem which is a great set-back in our progress.

CO-OPERATIVE AND REGULATED MARKETS

By : Prof. T. S. KATIYAR

MARKETING is a many-sided problem dependent for its solution not only on what can be done to perform all the marketing services from the assembling stage to the final distribution of produce but also on removal of disabilities of our growers to enable them to share maximum of the consumer's rupee. Further, marketing is the crux of the whole Food and Agriculture problem. It would be useless to increase the output of food, it would be equally futile to set up optimum standards of nutrition unless means could be found to move food from the producer to the consumers at a price which represents a fair remuneration to the producer and is within the consumer's ability to pay.

Agricultural marketing in India suffers from well-known and accepted defects and weaknesses. A number of unfair practices, like short-weights, unauthorised deductions and high rates of commission, prevalent in most of the agricultural markets take away a substantial share of the price paid by the purchaser and place the farmers at a disadvantage as compared with the more organised section of the trading class. It is, therefore, necessary to counteract the malpractices prevalent in the markets for primary goods and make marketing of agricultural produce more orderly and efficient.

In solving the marketing problems the development of two institutions, namely, (i) Regulated Markets, and (ii) Co-operatives is being accelerated by the Governments. These institutions are meant fulfil distinct purposes and they are to collaborate in solving many of the problems usually experienced in agricultural marketing. Besides, helping the producers through these two institutions other measures may also be taken by the Government to help the producers in disposing of their marketable surpluses with minimum of costs and waste.

The co-operative marketing societies are free associations of free people joining voluntarily to help to reduce marketing costs and meet corporate competition. Their methods of working depend upon the objectives which they have set for themselves. The cultivators in India are illiterate and ignorant. Being financially weak he has no holding capacity. He is generally indebted either to the village money-lender or the commission agent in the nearest mandies and is forced to sell his produce to his creditors.

Further, he lacks adequate transport facilities. Finally, sale of agricultural produce involves a number of functions, such as, assembling, storage, grading and standardisation, transportation, marketing and also financing which he cannot perform. The co-operative marketing societies venture to remove some of these disabilities of their members. Processing activities, like ginning of cotton, decortication of groundnuts etc. and grading of produce, like ghee, gur, eggs, cotton and fruits are the main functions of the co-operatives. Many of these societies also undertake to supply agricultural requirements, namely, seeds, manure and fertilisers, implements, and so on and consumers goods like, cloth, sugar, kerosene oil etc. to the members. They link credit with marketing; help the producer with loans on the security of produce and arrange for the sale of produce.

Many advantages are claimed for co-operative marketing, e. g. more sales, stabilized production, controlled flow of supplies, increased bargaining power of growers, reduced costs, more efficient services, more finances and so on. Co-operative marketing has achieved great success in Europe and America. In India, too, it has progressed beyond the preliminary stages in Bombay, Andhra, Madras and U. P. Many States have established Marketing Federations. The cotton grower in Gujrat and Bombay, and the cane grower of Bihar and U. P. have reaped considerable benefits from them. The cane Marketing Societies of U. P. and Bihar not only protect their interests vis-a-vis factory owners but also improve the quality of cane through the supply of improved seed and manures, advance funds, supply cane to factories and carry on welfare work in the village. The Cotton Sale Societies of Bombay gin and press cotton for members as well as insure the produce.

In Co-operative Marketing, like credit, there is a three-tier structure : Primary societies, Unions or Federations and States Societies. On 31st March, 1956 their respective number was about 97.78 lakhs, 23.45 lakhs and 19 only with the paid up share capital of Rs. 2,06 lakhs, Rs. 2,20 lakhs and Rs. 28 lakhs. The primary societies sold goods worth Rs. 53,78 lakhs, Unions or Federations worth Rs. 48,34 lakhs and State Societies worth Rs. 8,51 lakhs. The Government is making an all-out effort to encourage co-operative marketing. Substantial result should be achieved by 1961.

Regulation of markets commenced in India as early as in 1897 but the movement gained momentum only after 1930. Regulation of markets is the responsibility of the State Governments and markets are regulated under the respective States "Agricultural Produce Markets Act." At the end, of 1950, i. e., at the commencement of the First Five Year Plan, there were only 265 regulated markets. At present, statutory, regulation of markets is in force in the States of (1) Andhra Pradesh, (2) Bombay, (3) Mysore, (4) Madras, (5) Madhya Pradesh, (6) Punjab (7) Kerala and (8) Orissa. The centrally administered areas of Delhi and Tripura have recently adopted "Bombay Agricultural Produce Markets Act" and the markets in these areas will soon be regulated under the Act. The States of Assam, West Bengal, Bihar, U. P. and Rajasthan have also taken steps to draft the necessary bills for legislation. The Ministry of Food and Agriculture, Government of India has been vigorously pursuing the matter and it is expected that within the course of this year or the next, these States will enact and enforce the necessary legislation. It is also expected that by the end of the Second Five-Year Plan out of 1,800 primary wholesale markets in the country, 1,000 markets will be regulated. The state-wise position can be seen from the following table :—

State-Wise Distribution of Regulated Markets in India

States	At the end 1951	At the end of 1955	At the end of 1957	1958 (upto 31-8-58)
1. Andhra	45	62	78	79
2. Bombay	131	168	185	193
8. Kerala	1	1	2	2
4. M. P.	3	59	74	78
5. Madras	11	19	18	22
6. Mysore	36	47	50	57
7. Punjab	96	114	115	115
8. Orissa	–	–	–	3
Total –	322	470	522	549

The regulated markets aim at reforming the primary markets to enable the producers to sell their produce with absolute confidence and without any apprehension that they would be cheated or unfairly dealt with and thereby ensuring themselves a fair return for their produce. In the unregulated market, the primary producer has no say in the determination of price for his produce. Not infrequently he is not even consulted before closing the transaction on his behalf. The middlemen's charges for the services rendered are far more excessive than those charged for similar services in regulated markets.

Finally, he is to bear a number of unauthorised charges. Besides the above disadvantages, these unregulated markets do not provide any machinery for settlement of disputes between the seller and the buyer. Even where some arrangements exist, arbitration is one sided. Thus, the removal of such defects and shortcomings are the chief aim of the Regulated Markets. Moreover, regulated markets provide various amenities, namely, drinking water for men and animals, reste—houses, cattle sheds, canteens, sanitation and lighting arrangements etc. which are conspicuous by their absence in most of the unregulated markets.

The markets regulation also provides for introduction of standard weights and measure, their continuous check-up and grading of produce. The collection and dissemination of market information in the interest of the producer-sellers, the trader and the consumers is another important advantage of such markets. Not only the market functionaries are licensed by the Market Committee but their rates of remunerations are also fixed.

All these functions are performed through a democratic body called the Market Committee on which the producers, traders, local bodies etc. are represented. In the end, the real merit of the measure lies in its educational value, particularly in the development of marketing sense among the producers on the one hand, and the sellers, on the other. Taking an over-all picture, the Regulated Markets have exercised a very wholesome influence on the marketing structure and have generally raised the efficiency of the marketing system in those areas.

There is a fear in the minds of some that expansion of regulated markets will act as an impediment to the growth of co-operative marketing. Further, there is a fealing that where regulated markets are functioning efficiently there is not much need for developing co-operative marketing. The fear and the feeling referred to above, are unfounded and unreal. The two institutions, however, should not be considered competitive, but only complementary to each other. The regulated markets serve to regulate market practices and provide amenities to the producer and the trader who come for transactions to the market; the co-operatives interest is limited to organising producers to eliminate the middlemen, to provide them much-needed credit which enable them to store their produce till market becomes favourable, to undertake the supply of commodities, and last but not the least, to assemble, grade and standardize and process the commodities, wherever possible, before sale. It should now be evident that the functions of co-operatives and regulated markets are different and hence they cannot be competitive.

This, however, should not be interpreted as suggesting that each institution can work successfully in isolation. In reality, they mutually help in achieving

their goals. The market committee in the regulated market will need the assistance of co-operatives in the effective implementation of the rules and bye-laws framed. There have been instances of strikes by middlemen and agents in some of the markets, with the result that the entire marketing system was upset resulting in losses to the grower and the loss of their confidence in the marketing committees. The market committees, in the absence of reliable organizations of producers, had to succumb to the wishes of the middlemen and dealers. Wherever the co-operatives have representation on marketing committees, they can, with the help of the grower-members, assume direction of the market committees. The Co-operatives will also be of help to the market committees in introducing sale of clean produce and other enforcement functions of the Act, as they can take the initiative in these directions which will eventually be followed by others.

In an unregulated market, pregnant with malpractices, it cannot be expected of a co-operative to function very efficiently rather there is every chance of its complete failure due to unbriddled competition from commission agents. In a regulated market co-operatives, with the encouragement provided by the market committees and the Government, can function smoothly to the best interest of its members.

The Marketing co-operatives cannot take up the functions of the regulated markets because it may not be a practicable proposition. The regulation of markets by co-operatives, besides other issues, will involve the amendments in the law existing which is not feasible in a democratic set-up, and moreover, such an action will be strongly resented to by the agents and middlemen, and finally, will not find support from country's constitution. Likewise the functions of the co-operatives cannot be taken up by the market committees as they do not have any powers to sponsor co-operative societies. The most befitting thing for the two institutions is, therefore, to work in perfect harmony with each other and to work for the good of the producer-seller whose cause they profess to be pleading.

It will not be out of place to offer a few suggestions at this juncture which may help both the institutions in the national interest *Firstly*, Co-operative should not only precede but also succeed the establishment of regulated markets. *Secondly*, the programme of regulating all important markets should be stepped up. *Thirdly*, efforts should be made to bring the village markets within the purview of the Agricultural Produce Markets Act and Co-operatives should take up their management in their hands. *Fourthly*, adequate representation should be given in the Market committee to Marketing co-operatives. *Fifthly*, highest priority should be given to co-operative marketing organizations in the matter of selection and allocation of stalls and plots. *Sixthly*, State Governments should take immediate steps to make a comprehensive study of the working of the regulated markets in their territory and take measures to solve the problems of regulated markets. The problems of market year and finance should be solved at the earliest. The Secretary of the market committee should be a trained person, vested with high powers and should be appointed by the Government. Moreover, Service Co-operatives and Co-operative Farming societies should be associated with Marketing Co-operatives.

Finally, a collaboration plan for the marketing co-operatives and regulated markets should be drawn out for the

Third Five-Year Plan because such an action is more than overdue. State Trading in Food Grains, which is in offing at present, will be a success in the presence of such an integrated scheme of co-operative and regulated Markets.

THE COMING CENSUS

By : MAHESH CAHND

(Continued from May 1959 issue)

Second Language

Besides as in the last census, an attempt may be made to find out what other *language—not languages*—an individual knows. It may be called a second language and the individual may be free to name any one in case he knows more than one other language.

Birthplace

There may be a suggestion that birthplace be classified only as rural or urban as against the suggestion to classify it under 'same as present place of residence', village, town, district and state. We still feel that it should be sufficient to classify birth place as urban and rural indicating district and state. There may be a suggestion that we may add a preliminary category of "same as present residence" or birth place 'here' which 'here' may, at the time of tabulation, be classified under rural and urban.

Questionnaire-Design

We do not feel that differences exist over what question suould be asked under each of the twelve topics mentioned above, but there may be mentioned two points in regard to designing of the questionnaire. In the last census the individual slip consisted of question-numbers and blank lines. It is likely to be suggested how that the various alternative answers may be printed on the individual slip and the enumerator may circle one of them. Certain examples are given below :—

A. Literacy Read/Write/ No *or* RW/X

B. Religion H M C S J B, where the letters obviously stand for six religions beginning with these letters.

C. Marital Status NM, M, W, S, the symbols meaning not married, married, widowed and separated (including divorced).

Given such a facility, an enumerator will definitely find it easier and quicker to record the response. He need only circle, the relevant symbol.

The second point concerns codes for tabulation. If mechanical (*not manual*) tabulation is used, the responses will have to be coded by allotting integers and small square spaces may be provided to the right of the symbols. But if the tabulation is going to be manual as before, the symbols should prove sufficient for the purpose. We think that manual tabulation should be chosen for this census also to save pressure on calculating-equipments and help employment, albeit temporary.

Employment Status

Before we pass to another controversial point, let it be said that the employment status categories should include, besides the usual three, viz., employee, employer and self-worker, a fourth one, i.e., unpaid family worker. An unpaid family worker is economically active.

Similarly, under economic status, it is now likely that there may be adopted a twofold category of earner and non-earner, but instead of having a separate class 'non-earner' it may be listed on the questionnaire in its subforms which are mainly 'unpaid household worker 'students', 'rentiers and pensioners', "dependent" and others.

Seekers of work

We have said little about occupational and industrial classification as also unemployment, about which most of the States had a question in the 1951 census. With the detailed categories of employment status it may be suggested that a question be put 'Are you seeking work ?' The classification of those who say 'yes' against age should throw light on distribution of labour force by age and help reveal child and old-age seekers of jobs. Classified against five categories of employment status we would know the distribution of not only unemployment, but also underemployment as a 'felt need' in the class of workers.

Occupation and Industry

For occupation we must ask the enumerator to put down the kind of work done and then code it according to the occupational categories later. We could do the same in regard to industry, but it will perhaps be better to give the broad industrial categories in symbols.

Sources of Livelihood

In this connection mention must be made of an idea to put the questions 'Are you a cultivator ?', 'Are you an agricultural labourer ?', and 'Do you have any own home industry or handicaft and if yes, give its name ?', We understand that an individual may be listed under all the the three categories, though one is less likely to have more then two of these statuses. Such information should help us to know how many fall under various combinations of these. But would such overlapping questions be of much use. *We still feel that main (industrial) source of livelihood and secondary source of livelihood* are still better. The eight livelihood categories we had in the 1951 census can no doubt be altered to an extent. We may now recognise only two categories under agriculture, viz., cultivator and agricultural labour. We may have a separate category for " own home industry and handicrafts " but care will have to be taken with regard to the definition of these terms. We would suggest the use of the work 'handicrafts, only. However, those listed under the third category will not necessarily belong to the rural areas but it would not be difficult to classify them for villages separately.

We would however again impress upon the Registrar General the common-sense outlook that hangs round the other four livelihood categories of 1951 viz., production other than agriculture, commerce, transport and others as also the utility of having comparability with the 1951 livelihood distributions.

Migration over A year

Two more points before we close this note. Some people think that the census be used to find out migration over a year and so they would like to include a question 'where were you a year ago?' We feel this is unnecessary. Our economic development is not so fast that we would find much of mobility through that question.

Regional Language Versions.

Finally, very great care be taken to get the english version translated into the regional languages. In order to test the utility of the translations there may be a pretesting done as also the translation may be circulated to university economic and commerce departments and interested persons for comments and improvements.

SOME ASPECTS OF SOIL EROSION AND ITS CONTROL IN RAJASTHAN

By : Dr. R. M. SINGH

(Continued from May 1959 issue of R. I.)

In the drier parts of the State viz., Jaisalmer, Barmer, Bikener, Jodhpur, Churi etc. the first step should be to prohibit the entire area for free grazing that results in over grazing especially by sheep and goats. A system ot deferred grazing should be practised. In some acute problem areas at least for a few years stall feeding should be done and free grazing may be practically abandoned. It may necessitate the severe culling of livestock on a large scale.

The turbulent atmosphere causes accelerated erosion on comparatively flat surface by sand shifting or drifting in dry parts. It is very much reduced when the surface is undulating because of low velocity of wind at ground level due to the friction created by the undulating topography. It is, thus, creation of undulating surface on loose sands by opening furrows or deep and wide trenches to an extent of 2′ to 3′ wide and 1′ deep or ridges with trenches at frequent intervals against the normal wind direction, is very essential.

The bunds around the fields will further help in checking the movement of soil particles, But the difficulties in stabilizing the bunds particularly during the dry periods–winter and summer, are faced. The work of plantation of *Saccharum* sp. should be taken up intensively during the rainy season on a large scale. Some drought resistant local grasses like *Anjan* or *Dhaman* can serve the purpose equally well. Once these grasses have established during rainy season, they should not be disturbed by cutting, grazing or uprooting at least for a period of two years. During this period the whole land will be covered with vegetation that will protect against further abrasion.

The desert loving plants like various *cactus* can also serve the purpose of protecting the surface and stabilizing the bunds. Of course, the fodder value will be almost nil. But some varieties of *cactus* without spines used as fodder may be grown with advantage. For stabilizing sand dunes or waste lands many wild shrubs can be planted which are very resistant to drought conditions e. g. *caparis horida, capris aphylla* or pines. Of course, these are of no economic value but they serve as hedge for plantations of Khejri, Babool, Kher etc. In general plantations for stabilizing sand dunes mounds and the protection of waste land are equally important since such lands may become a menace to the surrounding cultivated lands in course of time.

The harvesting of crops should be done at least 8″ to 10″ above the ground level that will provide enough stubble to check the drifting of sand.

Erosion and other forms of soil deterioration affect the physical, chemical and biological nature of soils so that a different system of soil management may be desirable. A proper system of cropping, thus, should be developed particularly in the dry areas subject to wind erosion. The system may include :

(i) Growing of crops in strips on contour preferably against the direction of wind.

(ii) Sowing of crops in lines to reduce competition between plants when thickly populated.

(iii) Use of wind brakes like Arhar, Sanai, Castor etc. preferably tall plants.

(iv) Use of green manure plants to create mulch or stubble on the surface and to bind the particles of sand.

(v) Use of cover crops and leaving the foliage to protect the sand drifting, and

(vi) Frequent use of F. Y. M. in large quantities to increase the cohesion and water holding capacity and to improve other physical properties of the soil primarily to produce a good crop and secondly to increase the organic matter content of the soil directly and indirectly.

Resume:

A proper management of the soil under cultivation will not only protect the land against deterioration but will keep it permanently productive. Soil productivity is not a temporary asset nor it is of concern to a limited portion of the nation. It is a heritage affecting the farmer, the manufacturer and the consumer. Apparent over production and potential future lack cannot be solved without a sensible programme of conservation of soil resources. The adoption of soil management practices, cropping systems that provide, for soil conservation and improvement is necessary to the permanent economic welfare of the nation.

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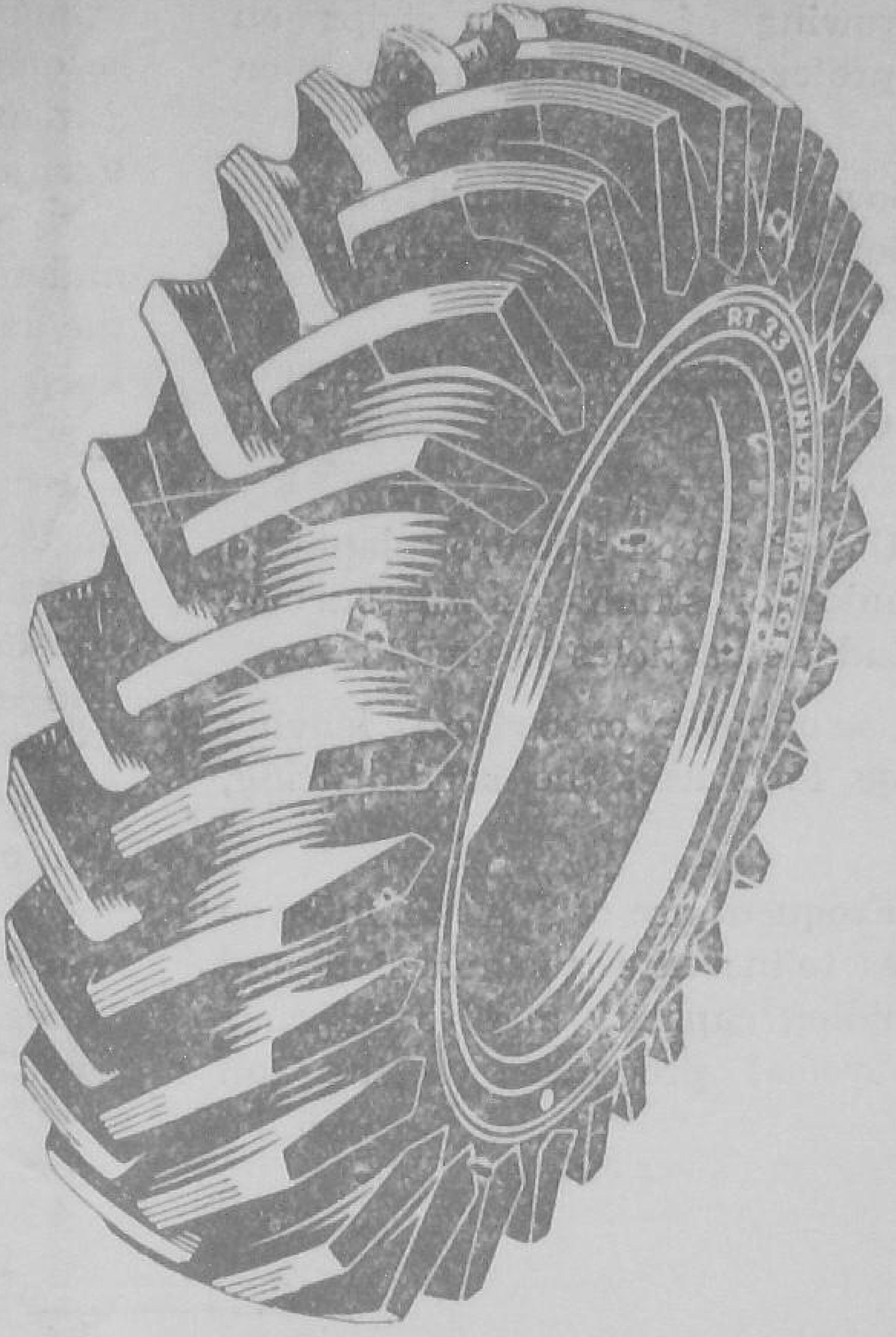

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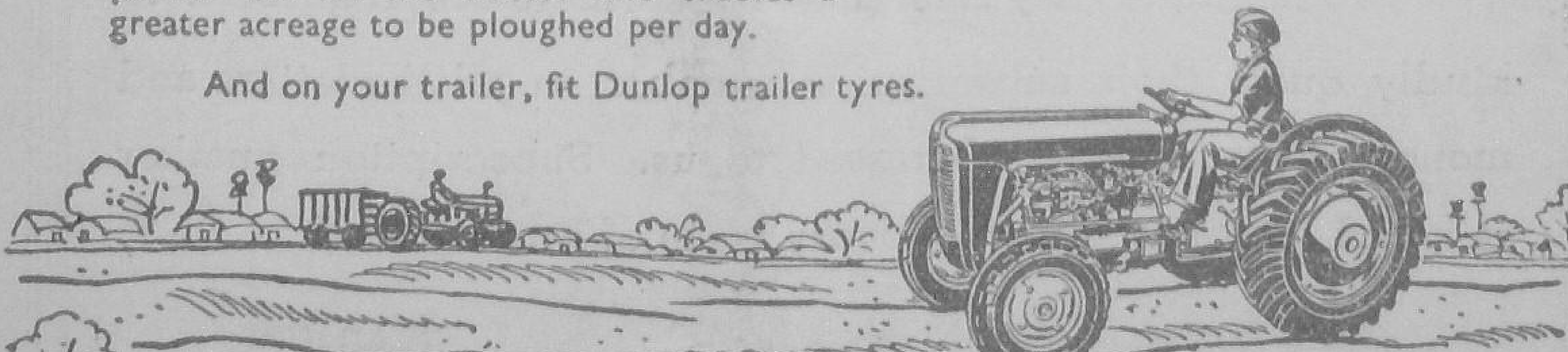

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